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A review of pertinent materials showed American junior college presidents seldom assume the responsibilities of educational leaders, but rather merely function in the capacity of educational administrators. To further investigate this problem, a 10% random sample of 912 colleges listed in the 1968 "Junior College Directory" was selected; the sample was stratified by enrollment size and source of control. Documents, including statements of policy produced by boards of trustees, job descriptions of college presidents, and presidents' annual reports to boards, faculties, and/or students were examined. Findings indicated that at most junior colleges there was no formal definition of the president's responsibilities; there were no written statements of official board policies; presidents did not periodically report to trustees, faculty, or students; and, typically, presidents were not responsible for, or address themselves formally to, matters of educational leadership. Ten steps board of trustees can follow to develop their presidents into educational leaders were suggested: provide a job description for president; require him to relate all expenditures to student learning; seek out new people for president's position; rotate office holders; allow president to delegate authority for fiscal management; allow educational experimentation by president; let him take articulation initiative; let him upgrade his education; support institutional research; and ask the president pertinent questions. (MB)

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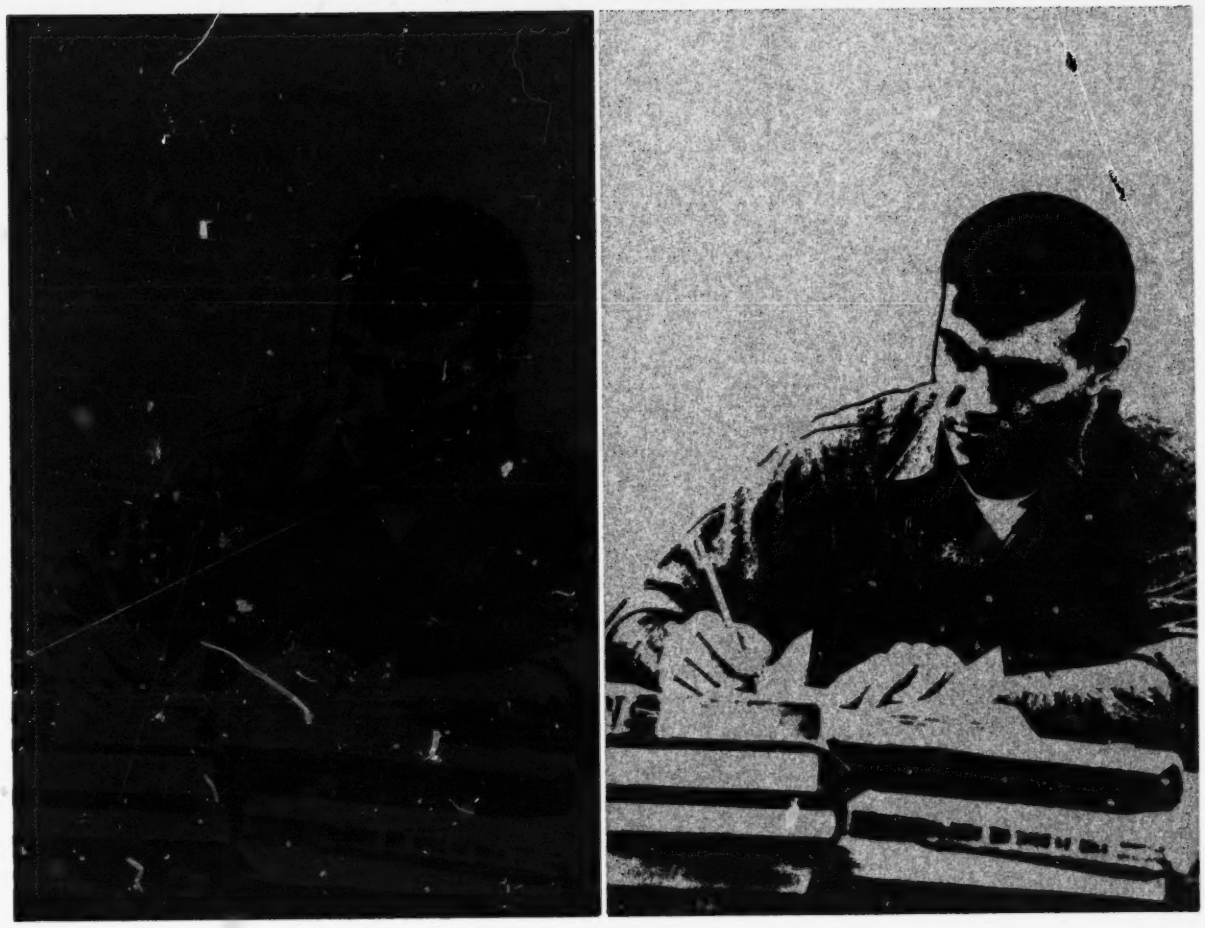

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UNIVERSITY OF CALIF
LOS ANGELES

MAY 27 1969

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FOREWORD

Many have tried but few have succeeded in writing such a succinct and timely discussion of the limitations and potentials of the community college president as an educational leader. The authors present here a well organized and relatively complete discussion and analysis of the role of the college president as an educational leader and agent of change. It should be required reading for practitioners and students alike.

The authors correctly take the stance that the president of a two-year college must be an educational leader, not a mere manager or institutional custodian, if his institution is to be successful in achieving its goals. In this context, they mention an obvious but very often overlooked fact—the college exists for the education of students, not for the satisfaction of the needs and aspirations of the trustees, administrators, or faculty. Pursuing this idea in greater detail, the monograph stresses the need for goal definitions which will stimulate the growth and development of the college in directions of relevant and high quality educational programs for its clientele. As pointed out here, this fact is often overlooked in junior colleges.

The urgent need for decision making based upon substantive information is a significant contribution of this publication. It is an unfortunate truism that higher education in general has effectively resisted efforts to utilize institutional research as the primary tool for the development, improvement, and evaluation of its programs and its products, the students. As pointed out by the authors, administrative decisions regarding curriculum development, organizational change and innovation, and other aspects of the activities of the college are, all too often, based upon imitation and wishful thinking rather than demonstrably effective processes and measurable results. results.

The management of institutional resources is undoubtedly an im-

portant responsibility of the college president; however, this aspect of his role is exceeded in importance by the need for vigorous leadership of the educational activities of the college. Being a "headman" in these troubled times is simply not enough. Trustee's perceptions of the role of the president reflect an affection for and a preoccupation with an outdated and irrelevant concept of the needs of higher education in general and community colleges in particular. Doesn't it reflect the long outmoded concept of the superintendent of schools whose only concerns were with "bonds, buses, and buildings"?

The results of the authors' survey of the currently accepted roles of presidents is discouraging, but the national picture should not be considered beyond remediation. There are signs that a number of proglessive administrators and boards of trustees have recognized the necessity for strong educational leadership in both new and older colleges. The widespread unrest among students and faculty and the growing concern of state and national legislators have come through loud and clear, and some notable efforts are being made to improve both the efficiency and effectiveness of the educational processes. Perhaps this monograph will stimulate further progress toward needed qualitative improvements.

The suggestions for the redefinition of the president's role made in Chapter V should be invaluable to college trustees, presidents, and the faculty. The trustees and faculty should expect educational leadership from the president. He should respond to such expectations explicitly through budget, long-range planning, institutional research, and interaction with students, faculty, and trustees in an effort toward institutional improvement. Such responses by presidents, coupled with stimulation of appropriate and constructive responses by others, should make creative innovation a reality in community colleges.

Last, the bibliography is to be recommended to the reader as an indispensable tool for lay and professional personnel who have a serious commitment to the community college. These materials should be in every two-year college library and available to all who are responsible for the decisions which will shape the future of these colleges.

Clyde E. Blocker

President
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Harrisburg, Pennsylvania

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Among members of the Clearinghouse staff who helped in the preparation of this study, Michael Capper must be singled out for special recognition. He did much of the bibliographic work and conducted the survey which is a part of this study. John R. Boggs assisted with study design.

Arthur M. Cohen, U.C.L.A. assistant professor of Higher Education, is principal investigator and director of the Clearinghouse. John E. Roueche is director of the Junior and Community College Division of the Regional Education Laboratory for the Carolinas and Virginia.

Arthur M. Cohen
and
John E. Roueche

University of California, Los Angeles
January 1969

CONTENTS

		Page
Foreword		I
Acknowledgments		III
Introduction		VII
Chapter 1.	**The Question of Leadership**	1
Chapter II.	**What Is Educational Leadership?**	7
Chapter III.	**The Extent of Educational Leadership in the Junior College**	14
Chapter IV.	**Classifying, Identifying, and Training Educational Leaders**	24
Chapter V.	**Memo To a Trustee**	33
Bibliography		40

INTRODUCTION

Long identified as the most viable of American educational institutions, the public community college has been credited with making "the greatest educational advancements in the twentieth century" (59:19).* The two-year college is confronted with unprecedented challenge and opportunity because "for the first time in our national history, public education has failed to prepare adequately a whole generation of urban Americans for the increasingly complex world of tomorrow" (26:9).

The implications of these and similar comments are that public two-year colleges now have unique opportunities to develop relevant programs for the communities in which they are located. Indeed, leading educational spokesmen are now insisting that the junior college represents the major hope for the future of American higher education. Former Assistant Commissioner of Education R. Louis Bright emphasized this belief recently when he said, "My *own feeling is that five years from now, many junior colleges will* be furnishing leadership that universities will follow" (8:23).

While it has always been difficult to introduce real educational change into outdated, overcomfortable institutions of higher learning or into existing systems of elementary and secondary education (59), the growth factor alone of the public community college enhances its potential to do so. With more than seventy new two-year colleges being established each year, it is logical to assume that these new colleges could take full advantage of both technological developments and educational insights that have been gained through the research endeavors of universities, research and development centers, and private industry. One could assume so but such is not necessarily the case.

In practice, the overwhelming majority of new public community

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* Bracketed numbers refer to bibliographical entries on 40-44.

colleges that are established each year simply emulate the objectives and programs of other two-year colleges in the region. In such cases, the individuals responsible for creating new community colleges may have failed to relate the institution to either community needs or to improved educational practices elsewhere. Gleazer has commented on the problem:

> It is my impression that community colleges have tended to stay well within the boundaries of current educational practice and procedure. Frequently described as flexible, dynamic, new, and responsive, the community college does not often actually fit that description (21:14).

Johnson has emphasized the lack of research-based educational decision making in community colleges, describing the usual steps in building a junior college curriculum as a "scissors-and-paste" approach (36:21). Using this technique, the offerings of one or more neighboring colleges are adopted, sometimes in their entirety. In brief, the public community college has rarely introduced new or improved solutions to pressing institutional problems. Rather, it has been content to replicate the existing practices and methods of other two-year institutions while giving little consideration to the educational effect of such techniques.

If public community colleges are to be the major hope for the future of American higher education, and if universities are to be following the innovative developments of the two-year college in the next five years, new leadership must be developed—leadership that will provide the impetus for educational change resulting in improved practice. Those responsible for shaping and implementing educational policies must ultimately accept responsibility for the success or failure of the two-year college in effectively serving the society that created and nourished it.

Much has been written on the college president—his role, function, background, scope of his responsibilities, and so on. He is the educational leader of his institution—or is he? The literature is not at all in agreement on that point. How does true change in educational form develop? Because of the president's activities, or in spite of them? Although he may not be a leader, the president is certainly in position to veto change. Is his role only a negative one?

The junior college presidency is a most important position within the institution. It certainly exerts more influence on policy than does the university presidency—this due, if nothing else, to the fact that university faculties are more autonomous than are their junior college counterparts. The situation may change as a result of faculties' growing power but, up to now, the community college president has had the major say in educational policy on his campus.

This monograph examines educational leadership from the standpoint of the junior college president. Chapter I reviews some

of the literature on the college president generally. Chapter II defines leadership as a concept.

A survey conducted by the Clearinghouse forms the basis for Chapter III. President's reports to their boards and their faculties were gleaned for any evidence suggesting that presidents were addressing themselves to *educational* matters. Chapter IV discusses implications of the findings, limitations on the presidency and ways in which leadership tendencies may possibly be developed.

The last chapter is in the form of a memorandum to a junior college trustee pointing out steps to be taken if the presidency is to become a position in which educational leadership must reside.

Throughout, the authors' belief that educational leadership must take positive dimension is brought out. Junior colleges nationwide simply cannot afford to coast, absorbing ideas from other levels of education, swallowing innovation, yet remaining static. They must now seize the initiative in developing, implementing and, above all, in evaluating their practices. Someone, some group, within the institution must do it. Right now it is, or should be, the president's responsibility. Eventually, it may devolve to the faculty but it cannot be long avoided by both if the college is to persevere.

THE QUESTION OF LEADERSHIP

CHAPTER I

Few terms are used more frequently in literature on the college presidency than the term "leadership." Books, articles, and speeches are replete with admonitions and exhortations for the president to be a "leader." Unfortunately there appears to be no agreement as to what effective educational leadership is. A review of the literature at this point will serve to emphasize that while most authors support the concept of "educational leadership," few get to the point of defining the term in any functional way.

A recent article entitled, "Making of College Presidents," concluded with this comment:

> Although he is not active as a teacher and scholar, the president can and must function as an educational leader. The emphasis here is on leader, for the most important responsibility is to create a climate in which other people can be scholars and teachers (1:87).

Others observe that the president is the chief administrative officer of the college or university, exercising general oversight of the functions of administration within the academic community. But the president is also more than this. He is the principal member of the faculty, first among equals, *the education leader* (47:196-197). Newburn says that in his dealings with the board of trustees, the president is a "pro among amateurs," and is charged with giving true educational leadership to the enterprise (50:14).

Educational leadership has also been described in terms of the "desirable characteristics" a leader should possess. For example, in a survey of 500 professors from 93 colleges in 24 states, Hillway

(29) identified the following desirable and undesirable characteristics of college presidents, as identified by the 403 respondents:

Desirable Characteristcs of College Presidents	Percentage Response
1. Integrity in personal and professional relations	24%
2. Intellectual ability and scholarship	22
3. Ability to organize and lead	20
4. Democratic attitude and methods	11
5. Warmth of personality	6
6. High moral and intellectual ideals	5
7. Objectivity and fairness	5
8. Interest in education (and ed. philosophy)	2
9. Culture and breeding	1
10. Self-confidence and firmness	1

Undesirable Characteristics of College Presidents	Percentage Response
1. Dictatorial, undemocratic attitude	24%
2. Dishonesty and insincerity	15
3. Weakness as educator and scholar	15
4. Vacillation in organizing and leading	15
5. Poor personality	9
6. Bias or favoritism	6

"Intellectual ability and scholarship" and "ability to organize and lead" are listed as desirable characteristics, and "weakness as an educator and scholar" and "vacillation in organizing and leading" are viewed as undesirable characteristics. These items reinforce Ruml and Morrison's contention that members of the faculty and of the student body, who naturally have more intimate associations within the institution than with the president himself, nevertheless look to him for suggestive leadership. With specific reference to the president's leadership role, they state,

> The true locus of the president's authority and responsibility lies in his duty to organize the agenda for meetings of the Trustees and to take the initiative in bringing necessary information to their individual and collective attention. Most important of all is his leadership with respect to the educational program of the college (57:4).

In another survey of important characteristics of college presidents as expressed by boards of trustees, Hillway (28) found additional support for the concept that the ideal college president is an educational leader. Of 355 questionnaires sent to trustees in public and private colleges in 48 states, 148 (42 per cent) were returned. Following are his findings:

FACTORS CONSIDERED BY TRUSTEES IN JUDGING PRESIDENTS

Factor	Percentage Who Consider
1. Leadership in maintaining high academic standards	90%
2. Good judgment in selecting faculty and staff	88
3. Ability to maintain high morale among faculty and staff	86
4. Facility for making friends in the institution	85
5. General intellectual leadership in the college and community	84
6. Fairness and honesty in treatment of faculty	80
7. Good judgment in promoting faculty and staff	80
8. Ability to maintain a balanced budget	78
9. Respect accorded him by other educators	77
10. Influence of his moral character on students and faculty	76

MOST VITAL COMPETENCIES OF A PRESIDENT

Competency	Percentage Response
1. Educational leader	52%
2. Management executive	45
3. Public relations expert	27
4. Money-raiser and businessman	16

Reviewing the responses of the trustees, Hillway concludes that "what they value most highly in a president is leadership in maintaining academic standards, and skill and honesty in dealing with other people. Effectiveness as a business manager would appear less important" (28:32-33). It seems that while trustees generally approve or determine institutional policies, they support the motion that it is the president who must furnish effective leadership for such policies (50:14; 18:267; 57:4).

As evidenced by their responses to a questionnaire sent to 312 public community colleges, presidents themselves feel that they have definite responsibilities for educational leadership. A 77 per cent response led to the observation that presidents see themselves as educational leaders both on the campus and in the community (65). Another author supports this by stating that "the central administration should always be a source of inspiration and expedition, rather than a bottle-neck practiced in the art of saying no. The central administration should be a place to see how it can be done rather than why it cannot be done" (73:241). Still another

commentator, discussing Dodds' *The Academic President: Educator or Caretaker?*, says,

> It is good that Dodds stresses 'educational leadership' as the 'prime function of the president.' This has been forgotten all too often when the college presidency developed into an office of fund-raising, public relations, and diplomacy. The return to reason, as represented by the new book, is a welcome sign of the possibility that the leadership of the university might emphasize once more the essentials of a higher education institution-teaching and research . . . if a president is to be an educational leader, he first of all must be an educated man (6:366).

If the perceptions of these professors, boards of trustees members, presidents, and other educators are accurate, it can be said that the college president can and does determine the direction, and to some extent, the destiny of his institution (32:7), and should be the *educational leader* of his respective campus.

How well then, do college presidents fit descriptions of educational leaders? One author reports that the average president has so many routine administrative tasks to perform that "the presidency has become more of a social, diplomatic, financial, and administrative post than one of scholarly and educational leadership" (7:387). Harold Taylor, former president of Sarah Lawrence College said that college presidents rather than leading opinion, follow it in search of funds (69:84). Taylor is not alone in his opinion. Charles Cole of Amherst, Wilbur Jordon of Radcliffe, Lynn White of Mills, and Benjamin Wright of Smith, all who have recently resigned presidencies, indicated in their resignations or other subsequent writings that they were unable to reduce or change the fund-raising characteristic of the college presidency. Perhaps the most flagrant example is that of Jordon of Radcliffe, who had freedom from fund-raising activities written into his contract, but who was unable to escape the function. Leestamper, commenting on the above, calls fund-raising "a basic characteristic of the position" (43:429).

One point of view holds that the image of the college president as an educational leader is outdated and, like all executive positions, the presidency has undergone a change. Selden reports,

> The principal job of the college president in the 1920's and earlier was the educational concern, the operation of curriculum. Now the president spends little time on that. A fair share of his time is spent on relations with the government and the public, in concern with the attitudes of faculty and other employees, alumni, and students (62:12).

Rourke and Brooks explain that presidents are no longer required to be innovators, but effective managers of very complex institutions. They caution against comparing contemporary presidents with their nineteenth century predecessors who were in a very different position of influence than those men today (56:111). Another explanation is offered by Keill, who writes

If boards of trustees tend to select presidents in their own image, and if boards are composed, largely, of highly successful businessmen and industrialists, and since the office of president has no power other than that granted by the governing body of his institution, then unscholarly business values may very well undermine even a determined president's administration (38:63).

This influence of boards of trustees, in addition to the current trend of expanding institutions without proportionally expanding funds, can put a president more in the role of a "small-town mayor" than a true "educational leader" (69).

More light is shed on the influence boards of trustees exert in shaping the roles of their respective presidents by Fairfield (17) in his response to the previously mentioned survey by Hillway. He complains that Hillway's sampling method was not stated, and that "53 per cent of the trustees contacted did not respond." Commenting on the statement by Hillway that "a few respondents objected to the questionnaire itself on the ground that a trustee 'simply knows' when the president is doing a good job" (28), Fairfield says that those who might expect more profound thinking from those in ultimate control of higher learning will be shocked no doubt on reading such a statement (17:322). Another survey of four unnamed college districts in two states tabulated forty-eight questions that boards of trustees ask their presidential aspirants. Some of the questions, such as "What is your philosophy of education?" and "How do you practically implement it in your work?" would certainly bring forth the kind of information relevant to the board's need to choose an educational leader; but many others, such as "What would you do about an instructor who cut his nails or cleaned them in public?" or "What kind of a car do you drive?" do not seem to be questions that an educational leader would answer in any special manner (31:14). It would seem a fair speculation, then, that if a college president is not an educational leader, his board of trustees has not required that he be one.

From a review of the literature, one could conclude that the president is not an educational leader. Researching the literature in higher education from 1920 to 1955, Faulkner concluded that the "president of the college is not responsible for building the policies of the institution" (18:267). Ruml and Morrison also describe the president's responsibility to carry out the decisions of the Trustees, and to reflect in tangible and intangible ways the ambitions of the Trustees for the performance and service of the college" (57:4). The issue of the importance of managerial skill over educational leadership is stressed by Bolman in his conclusions drawn from 100 interviews over a three-year period (1959-61). He found that while 83 per cent of the presidents he interviewed had earned a doctorate degree, far fewer were "scholars" as evidenced by the

fact that only "27 per cent of them had been selected to belong to one of three honorary scholastic societies: Phi Beta Kappa, Sigma Xi, or Tau Beta Pi, and only "25 per cent had ever received any grants for research." Bolman concluded that "while these presidents have been in and of scholarly life, for a good many of them other interests have been dominant, as evidenced by the fact that 84 per cent had been full- or part-time administrators, and nearly three-quarters of these had been full-time deans or administrators of similar rank for an average of eight years (4:201). Continuing, he comments on one board chairman he considers typical, and reports that "management abilities and functions were stressed in all the qualities and capabilities the chairman of the board was looking for in his new president" (4:205).

Another point of view not only agrees with the notion that the college president is not the educational leader some would like him to be; but adds that he should not try to be one. Since decision making takes place all over the institution, writes one author, the college president should only coordinate and balance these decisions, and not generate ideas from the top (2:59). In his words, "Administrators must refrain from making decisions which other people ought to make" (2:77). Keeney, the former president of Brown University, agrees. He writes:

> The president cannot make the trustees do anything; he cannot make the alumni do anything; he cannot make the public do anything; he cannot make the faculty do anything; though he can stop them from doing anything; and good students are impervious to direct orders.

He elaborates further:

> Moreover, presidents vary in point of competencies. Some of them are indeed educators and are capable of exerting educational leadership. Others are not educators but are excellent executives who can use their deans and provosts effectively as educational leaders. The president, therefore, may or may not be the person who should bring his leadership to bear on the formation of the curriculum (37:430).

Priest apparently recognized this difficulty of deciding what the role of a college president is when he wrote his advice to boards of trustees who were selecting a new president. He recommended that the board carefully outline the objectives of their college, and in light of this outline, decide if their president ought to be a strong educational leader, or an implementor of already existing plans (52:5). If it is decided, however, that the president is not to be the educational leader of his institution, the question remains: Where is the responsibility for educational leadership?

WHAT IS EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP?

CHAPTER II

Within the field of education, the term "leader" is often defined as though it were synonymous with "administrator," "chief executive officer," and "headman." The rationale is that the person who occupies a chief executive position is, by virtue of that position, the leader of the organization. Thus, the man, the position, and the functions of the position become confounded. There are distinctions, however, and they must be made before leadership as a concept can be discussed.

The term "leader" cannot be accurately defined without first defining the nature of the group that he is to lead. Of all definitions of "group," the broadest and probably the most basic is *an aggregate of people in which the existence of all is utilized for the satisfaction of some needs of each* (19:878). Other definitions of leader suggest he is the person whom other group members would like to become or the person whom other members *perceive* to be influencing group activities. But all hinges on there being a group to be led.

Most definitions of "group" suggest that not until goals are apparent—at least by implication—can an aggregate be so labeled. This portion of the definition of group has implication for the discussion of leadership in education. If a leader must lead a group and if the group, in order to be called a group, must have goals, leadership in education depends to a great extent on the definition of goals. Without goals toward which the aggregation is striving, there can be no group—hence, no leader. That is an important point—one to which we shall return.

A group is called an *organization* when the members are differentiated as to their responsibilities for the task of approaching the group goal. To consider the organization leader as "he who occupies a given office" is to hold an unfounded view. Although leadership may be assigned to an office, it does not necessarily reside there. Studies done in small groups in the armed services and other organizations have shown that leadership is not always exhibited by the person who occupies the top post.

A distinction must, then, be made between leadership and headship. *Headship* is a domination maintained through an organized system and not by the spontaneous recognition of the individual's contribution to group goals. The *leader's* authority is accorded him by his fellow group members; the authority of the headman derives from some power beyond the group itself (in the case of the schools, this would naturally be the board of trustees which appoints a headman but not necessarily a leader). Members of the group obey the headman's commands because that is part of their duty as organization members; to reject him would be to discontinue membership. They obey the *leader* on the other hand, because his directives coincide with movement toward organizational goals.

A leader is one who moves the group toward its goals. The quality of leadership does not necessarily relate to the leader's being liked or feared by group members. The essential is that there be effect. Without group movement toward defined ends, there has been, by definition, no leadership exerted.

Headship and leadership are not mutually exclusive but neither are they coincident. Many headmen are recognized by their subordinates as making very positive contributions to group progress and are accorded willing cooperation; hence, leadership status. Others remain headmen to whom obeisance—but little else—is paid.

The search for leadership traits has led into some curious explorations. Researchers have sought physical and constitutional factors such as height, weight, physique, energy, and appearance in their effort to pick out qualities of the leader. Intelligence has been shown to be an important variable and with few exceptions, investigators are agreed that leaders are superior in intelligence to nonleaders (19:885). This is not surprising because so much of leadership behavior involves problem-solving and one of the conditions of leadership emergence is that there be group problems. Other identifiable traits of leaders include self-confidence, sociability, persistence or ambition, dominance, and a trait of surgency (extraversion, outgoingness). However, numerous studies of the personalities of leaders have failed to find any *consistent* pattern of traits which characterize them.

Leadership is actually that which in any particular situation enables an individual to: (1) contribute significantly to group movement in the direction of a recognized goal, and (2) be perceived as doing so by fellow members (19:889). But the search for leadership traits suffers because of the fact that personality description and measurement is an inexact science. Reliable means of measuring basic personality dimensions are still needed (5). In addition, the groups studied in investigations of leadership dimensions typically differ from one another in purpose; this may have the effect of concealing a relationship between leadership and the type of organization being led. But in all studies of leadership, whether investigators are looking at personality traits or at physical characteristics of the leader, the definitions of "group" and of "organization" must be remembered.

How many distinctly different sets of group goals may be discerned in an educational organization? Actually, there are several. For example, the board wants to "process" great numbers of students for little money and sees the organization as being successful to the extent the per-student cost goes down. The faculty has a varying set of goals—playing "mother" to the young, dabbling in an academic discipline, staying in a situation where they can gain a sense of self-importance, and so on. The students, a complex lot, are there for purposes ranging from genuine inquiry (wanting to learn) to the fact that there are few socially acceptable alternative places for them to be.

In what directions shall the leader lead? The basic dilemma in attempting to assess dimensions of educational leadership within an ostensibly educational institution is that institutional goals are at variance. He who would be a leader in such an institution must take as his first responsibility the continuing definition and redefinition of what institutional goals should be. But that requires careful planning and study, using institutional research as a major tool—something that is rarely done in the junior college field (55).

In the case of a community junior college seen as a group, the goals may too frequently be classified as being little more than self-preservation. If group goals are to continue the operation of the college, attract equal or greater financial support, serve larger numbers of students, and generally to innovate enough so that group members do not become thoroughly bored with their work, they are goals nevertheless. Incidentally, those types of goals do not appear in college catalogs but they are, in fact, very real.

An organization in which the main goal is self-perpetuation can be measured as being effectual to the extent the group perseveres. Similarly the leader within that group is an effective and true leader if he aids the organization to continue. However, the leader who takes the group toward self-perpetuation in an effective man-

ner is not, by any measure, an *educational* leader. Education of the young is quite a different matter from self-perpetuation of an institution. The two may not even be related. Young people can learn without being in an institution; and an institution—even one which calls itself an "educational" institution—can persevere even if no one is being educated within it.

Studies of leadership in educational organizations suffer typically because the leader is identified as the one who occupies the position. But such studies are viewing the headman, not necessarily the leader. Accordingly, to determine traits, types of interactions, behavior, and characteristics of the person occupying that position is not to study leadership but actually to study the person occupying a place as headman. That is the problem with most of the studies reported in Chapter II—they examine the *person* or the *responsibilities assigned* to the office, not the extent to which the organization is being led toward its goals. Thus, most attempts to assess leadership in the field of education are curiously circular.

Perception of leadership as held by others, self-perception of leadership qualities, leadership as exhibited in writings, definite assignment of responsibility for leadership, and similar ways of viewing leaders cannot be successfully pursued without a definition of ends. If the ends are seen as institutional preservation, leadership can be assessed when leaders can be discerned but that is not *educational* leadership. In fact, such attempts may be viewed as somewhat pernicious because they are but one more example of education's refusal to face up to the realization that it is supposed to be in the business of causing student learning and that people within it—administrators, leaders, faculty members, counselors, or those who hold any other title—are valuable only to the extent their efforts enhance that learning. Causing learning, in this sense, is not "providing opportunity for education" but is in actuality the bringing about of specific, predictable, demonstrable changes in the students who attend the institution.

ADMINISTRATION vs. LEADERSHIP

The junior college presidency is recognized in a formal way as being a leadership position. The title, "leader," is accorded to the person ascending to the office. However, in practice, the very nature of this position in the organizational hierarchy may be such that the president is thrust only into a *headman* role. Mere occupancy of a position is no guarantee that its incumbent will actually be a functional educational leader. He may very well be a president and not lead at all.

Some authorities in administration as a field of study maintained that "educational leadership" is only one dimension of the total "administrative process" (41:51). This concept considers leader-

ship in the same category with goal-orienting, organizing, assembling and allocating resources, coordinating, controlling, and ceremonial functions. Those who advocate the concept, "administrative process," consider leadership merely as one of the many responsibilities assigned to the chief executive of an educational institution.

Lipham's concepts are in opposition to those which consider leadership as one dimension of the administrative process. He states:

> . . . while administration and leadership may have many factors in common, they are, indeed, not synonymous.
>
> . . . we may define leadership as the initiation of a new structure or procedure for accomplishing an organization's goals and objectives or for changing an organization's goals and objectives. Note that the emphasis here is upon initiating change. . . .
>
> The administrator, on the other hand, may be identified as the individual who utilizes existing structures or procedures to achieve an organizational goal or objective . . . the administrator is concerned primarily with maintaining, rather than changing, established structures, procedures, or goals. Thus, the administrator may be viewed as a stabilizing force (44:122).

Thus the educational leader in the two-year college would likely be considered a change agent. He would be responsible for creating an organizational structure that makes ample provisions for, and encourages, innovative thinking, experimentation, and educational development (42:3-4). The educational leader would probably not be content with the status quo. He would constantly evaluate and reassess the goals and objectives of his institution in light of the changing needs of his community. Most important, he would take a lead in changing or modifying institutional goals.

Within this concept, the educational leader is interested in finding better ways of *achieving* the goals of his institution as well. He remembers that his is an *educational* institution and that he has the ultimate responsibility for student learning. He is willing to experiment with new curricular patterns or with new instructional systems. The educational leader does not assume that existing educational practices are satisfactory; rather, he is convinced that most educational practices need vast improvements. He is concerned about student attrition and the students who receive failing grades in his institution. He asks the "right questions" of his faculty and expects the "right answers." In brief, the educational leader is committed to improved education (increased student learning) in his institution.

The concept, "educational leader," may be contrasted with most definitions of educational administration. Walton's definition is typical:

> Whatever else administration may be, it is at least the activity that concerns itself with the survival and maintenance of an organization and with the direction of the activities of people working within the organization in

their reciprocal relations to that end that the organizations' purposes may be attained (71:41).

Walton places much emphasis on the organization and the relationships within the organization. Survival and maintenance are very important (71). The administrator is committed to the goals and objectives of his institution—whatever they may be—and would rarely think of changing or modifying them. He may be interested in more economical ways of operating his institution, but has little time for serious educational problems, e.g., high attrition rate, success of his graduates in their subsequent endeavors and, above all, the question of whether or not anyone is learning anything.

The administrator assumes that all is well within his institution as long as rocks are not coming through the window. His instructors hold master's degrees in subject specialties and have no interest in research; therefore, they *must* be good teachers. He insists that "education is here for all who really want it." If a student does not then succeed, the institution is blameless. Attrition and failures are explained in terms of "student laziness" or "lack of student motivation."

Such generalizations serve to emphasize the significant differences between educational leadership and educational administration. In most cases, the administrator is content with the status quo, while the leader is committed to change in a constant endeavor to improve educational practices.

EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN THE TWO-YEAR COLLEGE

There are compelling reasons why leaders rather than administrators are needed in American two-year colleges. Currently, most of the institutions operate along traditional lines. Their practices, modes of organization, goals, outlooks, and philosophy stem from the university and the public schools. Yet the junior college has been charged with unique tasks—e.g., designing instructional forms suitable to a wide range of students, and being responsible for the entire community's educational needs. It is supposed to be a teaching institution; accordingly, it cannot function well by perpetuating forms developed by and for types of schools in which student learning is a consideration secondary to research or to wholesale socialization. The fulfillment of a unique mission demands unique forms. Leaders, not administrators, can create them.

Naturally, there are many reasons why two-year colleges have not developed into the dynamic, flexible institutions they could become. However, it is unlikely to assume that junior colleges will so develop unless some official in the college is assigned responsibility for educational leadership. That is a prime requirement. Educational leaders are needed if junior colleges are to point the way to improved educational practices. Administrators—those who per-

petuate the status quo—are not going to set the stage for change. The two-year college requires educational leaders.

The difficulty in isolating a singular criterion for leadership has led some researchers to propose that evaluation of the quality of the leadership be shifted entirely to measurements of group performance. Because if leadership is valuable to the extent it moves a group toward a set of goals, its quality can be assessed only by determining the extent to which the group has in fact moved. However, in the case of junior colleges, most of which do not have clearly stated educational goals, leadership cannot feasibly be defined in that way. For if there are no educational goals toward which the group is striving, there can be no measure of the extent to which the leader has helped the group perform. One cannot assess the group's movement toward goals which are not there; one can assess only in this case the leader's attending to education as a general, broad, overall organizational concept even though its effects are not possible to discern. That is the definition of educational leadership being pursued in this paper.

Suppose group goals in a junior college centered around the single statement, "to cause student learning." Immediately the situation would change. The leader of such a group would arrange situations in which objectives were carefully defined, instructional sequences plotted, and evidence of learning gathered. He and his institution would accept accountability for student learning and see themselves as successful only to the extent they brought it about. All dimensions of the college would be pointed toward demonstrable educational ends. The headman would either become an *educational* leader or be forced to abandon his position. Ah, but we digress!

THE EXTENT OF EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

CHAPTER III

Are there in fact educational leaders in today's junior college? An overview would suggest there are few. Experimental junior colleges are rarely found. Reports of instructional innovation are becoming more prevalent—a hopeful sign—but many of them represent a tinkering with course prerequisites, scheduling, and so on. Many writers in the field make assumptions about the quality of leadership in the junior college but few actual studies have been conducted. In this chapter, methods of assessing junior college leadership are discussed and results of a study conducted through the Clearinghouse are reported.

ASSESSING LEADERSHIP

It is difficult to assess educational leadership (or, for that matter, any other intangible dimension of the junior college) by perusing the published literature. Journal searches reveal little because junior college educators tend not to write. Except for a few state board or association publications and the *Junior College Journal*, there are no periodicals that solicit and carry articles on the junior college exclusively. Too, many of the articles and books that are written seem to say in effect, "See what a good job we are doing!"—a pattern of public relations that reflects the tendencies of an earlier generation when the institutions were fighting for status and support. One who would learn of the junior college must conduct his own study.

Educational leadership can be assessed in several ways. One

method is to tap the perceptions of faculty, peers, students, or self as to whether or not the headman is in fact an educational leader. In one study, for example, presidents, department heads, and students completed a questionnaire which indicated their perceptions of, and expectations for, the leadership behavior of their deans (11:355-362). Presidents' perceptions differed quite a bit from those reported by faculty and students. Incidentally, both faculty and students expected the dean to exhibit more leadership than they perceived.

Self-perception is another way of assessing education leadership. In Gould's study of the academic deanship, deans were asked to furnish self-perceptions regarding their responsibility for educational leadership. The investigator found that very few deans expressed a view that the occupant of the office should be a serious and continuous student of the ends and means of higher education in a rapidly changing social order. Fewer still believed the dean ought to have a clear and comprehensive view of the goals toward which his institution should be moving and the ways in which its total resources should be used to reach its objectives (23).

While other self-perception studies reinforce Gould's finding that the dean does not view himself as an educational leader, the opposite is found in self-perception studies of presidents. In his investigation of 312 public community college presidents, Shannon found that presidents see themselves as educational leaders, not only on the campus, but also in their communities (65). Other self-perception studies reinforce Shannon's finding that the junior college president views himself as an educational leader (14; 24).

Observational studies offer another means of assessing educational leadership behavior. In these investigations, the subject is either observed for a period of time or is asked to keep a daily log of his activities. His activities are then analyzed to see what proportion of his time the subject spends in areas of "educational leadership" as compared with time spent in administrative or "caretaking" activities. In one observational study, presidents who viewed themselves as educational leaders were found to spend an overwhelming proportion of their time in "administrativia" (27).

The study conducted through the Clearinghouse was built on a different model. Reasoning that perceptions and responses to questionnaires are subject to distorting biases, it was decided that actual documents be examined in order to discern the extent to which: 1) boards of trustees assign responsibility for educational leadership to the president; 2) the president is accountable to his board for educational leadership; and 3) the president addresses himself to educational matters in his formal and informal reports to his board, faculty, students, and/or other groups. Evidence was sought in the form of statements of policy produced by

boards of trustees (usually in the form of board policy manuals), formal job descriptions of junior college presidents, and presidents' annual reports to boards, faculties and students.

A 10 per cent random sample of the 912 community and junior colleges listed in the 1968 *Junior College Directory* was selected for survey, with stratification made on the basis of enrollment size and source of control (whether public or private). Following are the six groups from which random 10 per cent samples were taken:

Group	Control and Size	Number Sampled
1	PU 0–2,000	44
2	PR 0–2,000	26
3	PU 2–6,000	16
4	PR 2–6,000	1
5	PU 6–10,000	3
6	PU 10,000 +	3

Each institution was sent a questionnaire asking if it produced any of these documents:

1. Statement of Board Policy (Board Policy Manual)
2. Job Description of the College President
3. President's Annual Report to the Board, Faculty, and/or Students.

Included with the questionnaire was a request for the documents. Fifty-two per cent of the institutions responded to the original questionnaire, an additional 12 per cent responded to an identical follow-up, and a subsequent telephone request brought the total response to 90 per cent. Of the nine institutions that did not respond, three were branches of the same multicampus system, three had become four-year institutions, and three simply did not respond and could not be reached by telephone.

The survey showed that less than half (45 per cent) of American junior colleges produce a board policy manual, or other statement of board policy; less than half (45 per cent) have any formal statement of the duties and responsibilities of their presidents or a description of his position; and only 38 per cent of all presidents produce any periodic report to trustees, faculty, or students. Only 66 per cent of the institutions sampled produce any of the three documents—certainly not an adequate proportion from which representative statements about junior colleges in general can be made. Even if these proportions were adequate, they are further reduced when the factor of sending the documents is added. Institutions which both produced and sent a board policy manual comprised only 30 per cent of the sample; presidential job description, 30 per cent; and annual report, 25 per cent of all schools sampled. A total of 45 per cent of the sample both produced and

sent one or more of the three documents, with an additional 18 per cent promising to send something, but failing to do so.

It was hypothesized that some differences might exist between public and private and/or large and small schools with respect to whether or not they produced some of the documents, or would respond to the survey. However, no differences were found between either large (<2000) or small (>2000), or public or private schools in questionnaires returned; total responses (letter and phone responses); documents produced; documents sent; documents promised, but not sent. Small (>2000) public schools sent fewer documents than the other groups, but the difference was not significant. It may also be noted that six of the nine nonresponding institutions were from this group, which would contribute to the difference.

It is not the purpose of this investigation to single out any institution for particular praise or criticism; therefore, none of the institutions participating in this study will be identified. Rather, the study sought to determine whether presidents of junior colleges are assigned responsibility for educational leadership and whether presidents concern themselves with education in their reports to boards and faculties?

PART I: Is the junior college president assigned responsibility for educational leadership by his Board of Trustees?

Two institutional documents were examined to find answers to this question: job descriptions of junior college presidents and junior college trustees' board policy manuals. It is well to emphasize again that the majority of two-year colleges do not produce either document (55 per cent of American junior colleges have neither presidential job descriptions nor statements of official board policy). Of the documents received, only eight assign any "educational responsibility" to the president; most job descriptions and board policy manuals make no reference to it. They typically assign the president responsibility for: campus development (buildings and grounds), implementing the policies of the board of trustees, fiscal affairs, the supervision of administrative and teaching staff, and campus law and order.

The following is typical of the presidential job descriptions received in this study:

The Duties and Responsibilities of the President:

- To execute the policies of the board of trustees and to be responsible for the satisfactory administration of the college
- To present to the board of trustees the annual budget and essential reports of the college, and to make such recommendations to that body as are considered advisable
- To represent the college to accrediting agencies

- To preside at faculty meetings
- To select desirable candidates for positions on the faculty and staff with the counsel of the dean of the college.

Eight of the junior colleges surveyed, however, did produce presidential job descriptions that indicated the president was not only assigned educational leadership responsibility, but was strictly accountable to the board for it. For example, one such job description carries the following references to educational leadership:

The President is accountable for the quality of the institution's instructional program. . . .

He initiates and promotes new programs to keep pace with technological advances and immediate community needs . . .

He organizes and meets with lay advisory committees to constantly update curriculums.

He conducts institutional studies for the purpose of instructional evaluation and sustenance of institutional accreditation.

Another job description makes specific reference to the president's role in bringing about educational change:

The President shall have the initiative in shaping the educational policies of [this] college and he shall recommend changes to be made in the programs and services to be provided.

The President shall make a written report to the full Board of Trustees once each year . . . with both immediate and long-range recommendations.

And another:

The President accepts responsibility for the educational leadership of the college.

He works as a creative executive leader in curriculum planning for the college. . . .

He directs a continuous program of evaluation, or research . . . and puts into effect within the college approved findings and results.

It must be emphasized that statements similar to those quoted above can be found in only eight job descriptions for junior college presidents. The other statements make no reference in any way to educational leadership or responsibility. In general, the junior college president is neither assigned responsibility nor held accountable for educational leadership.

PART II. Does the junior college president address himself to matters of education in his formal and informal reports to his board of trustees, faculty, students, or others?

The overwhelming majority of presidents sampled do not prepare an annual report. In fact, only 38 per cent of the presidents made a written report to the board and/or faculty. A few presidents indicated that they occasionally made oral presentations, but most stated that they did not make regular reports to any group.

Only five of the presidents' reports referred to any aspect of

educational leadership and/or responsibility. Most simply ignored the subject, but some actually reflected the president's resistance or antagonism toward change.

In the reports where the president seemed resistant to change, the following characteristics were found:

1) The president reviews his institution's curriculum primarily by listing the courses offered at his college.
2) This list of courses is frequently compared with the offerings of another junior college or with the lower division offerings of a state college or university.
3) Institutional stability is stressed.
4) The lack of discipline problems and student rebellion are used as proof of a well-functioning junior college.
5) The president makes specific references to his board of trustees as the college's policy-making body. He interprets his role as "carrying out" or "implementing" board policies. He views himself as the servant of his board.
6) The president cites his board as authority for any recommendation or suggestion that he makes.

Some actual quotes from presidents' reports will illustrate with greater specificity these characteristics antagonistic to a leadership role. With reference to his position in the institution, one president said,

This writer trusts that this will be the first of many years of mutual cooperation in forwarding the policies of the board of trustees.

In another report, the president said,

This administrator [sic] is not here to rock the boat. . . . I am here to make sure that this junior college operates smoothly.

In another report this statement is found:

Our school is making good progress. Our students have seemed happier and better behaved this year. There have been fewer disciplinary problems and less rebellion. Many visistors to the campus have commented on the maturity and good conduct of our students.

With respect to institutional planning, one report carried the following statement,

With regard to the future, we have been so busy during the past year we have not had time to do reflective thinking regarding future expansion.

The following statements were found in the areas of curriculum and instruction:

One hundred and ninety-five courses are now available to [our] students, a figure that compares favorably not only to other established junior colleges, but also the freshman and sophomore offerings of [the state's] four-year state colleges.

Instructors were too busy to get involved in the fundamental research of planning general education courses.

The college's offerings are sound for those who hope to transfer to the

state colleges, the state university, or to the municipal universities. Indeed, [our] courses have largely been patterned after offerings of these institutions.

In the 17 areas of specializations offered by [our] junior college during the 1966-67 year, five additional courses were added in order to make the programs broader and more acceptable in transfer.

Five of the reports indicated not only a presidential interest in educational leadership, but a personal commitment to it. The following characteristics were found:

1) The president stresses the need for institutional evaluation to bring about improvements in the classroom.

2) Follow-up studies are carried on in curricular programs to help evaluate the success of such programs.

3) The president uses an office of institutional research to furnish probability statements about the number of students who are likely to succeed (make a "c") in any curricular area.

4) Curriculum changes are based on institutional self-study and experimentation.

5) Innovations are evaluated in terms of "student success"—defined variously as "retention" or a given grade-point average.

6) Statements of goals and objectives are found for each instructional program.

7) The president expresses the need for "policy shaping" based on research.

8) Occupational surveys are reported as having been the basis for the addition or deletion of given curricular programs or courses.

9) The president expresses a commitment to change in an effort to improve educational practices.

10) The president reports that his board of trustees understand and are committed to educational change.

Actual quotes from these five documents suggest the president's awareness and concern for improved educational practices. In discussing the establishment of an innovations library, one president reported,

Faculty awareness creates faculty innovation. Without faculty interest and involvement, this project would not have been possible.

Another report indicates presidential support for a viable program of institutional research.

The establishment of an Office of Institutional Research and Testing has resulted in an increase in the number of evaluation studies and research reports. Studies of grade distribution, faculty and student performance, dropout rates and follow-ups of student transfers have provided more objective measurement of many college programs than has ever been possible in the past. The director of institutional research has assisted the central office staff in the development and interpretation of data to assist that office with various phases of its planning.

One president expresses support of innovative developments in the following statements:

A half-time counselor and clerk is now available to provide educational and vocational counseling. This effort is to support whatever avenue of improvement may be best for the individual, and that may not necessarily be attendance at this college.

A fertile field for innovative programs, as well as a valuable training ground for business and industry, has been the technical, vocational and semiprofessional area. All programs are geared to meet the manpower needs of the community; many are instituted at the specific request of business and industrial leaders. Our occupational surveys keep us in constant touch with the business community's needs . . . .

Similarly, a president expresses support for a recent innovation:

One of the best known JC innovations is the Weekend College which was introduced to the nation in September of 1965. It provides a full-degree program on Saturday—only classes for the benefit of housewives and business people, whose regular day and evening duties preclude their attending other times, to enroll in college.

And another . . .

Significant changes were made in the curriculums. . . . A special four-week summer program was developed by the counseling department to attract culturally disadvantaged students. . . . In addition to regular classroom instruction, special tutorial laboratories, conducted by faculty and student tutors, provided individualized instruction. . . .

In another report, the president calls for changes in the business office to create a better climate for educational change.

With the growth of all divisions and departments within the institution and with an increase in student population and expansion of physical facilities, it is essential that the business office engage in an on-going review of procedures and systems in order to provide flexibility, and to encourage innovation and growth in the educational program.

One president's report, in particular, contained many references to innovation and curriculum experimentation. Several paragraphs are cited from this report. Note that this president, realizing that all experimentation cannot end in unqualified success, reports an experiment that had certain unsatisfactory results. He and his board of trustees appear to be willing to accept failures in a continuing effort to bring about eventual improved educational practices:

The college staff has continued its process of experimental development of the curriculum. An example during 1966-67 was the experimental basic English course to meet the needs of students deficient in preparation for standard freshman English courses. Under this program, all freshman students were put into a four-week diagnostic experience, and at the end of that time were given recommendations to continue with the remedial program or the regular freshman course. While results were good on the whole, and the experience valuable, it was found that (1) part of the diagnostic measures, including test scores and high school grades, yield almost exactly the same results as the four-week program, giving sufficient

basis for counseling as to the course needed by the individual; (2) the four-week diagnostic program was so time-consuming for the freshman that they often were in difficulty in other courses by the time of their shifts to the standard or the basic English courses; and (3) the mountains of paper work for each student virtually buried the instructors at a time when more hours should have been spent getting acquainted with the students they were to have for the entire semester.

As a result of these findings, particularly the first one named, the department determined to establish a basic communication course for the fall of 1967. A reading specialist, who had been a staff member three years ago, was employed to teach all the basic communications, and to combine these duties with the reading program already in existence. We feel fortunate that the availability of the reading specialist and the change in program coincided. We expect this development to be of especial value to vocational-technical students, many of whom have communication difficulties.

A similar development is taking place in mathematics. For years we have compromised on the courses in intermediate and college algebra by placing students needing either into a single course called "college algebra." Five semester hours credit were earned by the student with only elementary algebra in his background, and three semester hours credit were earned by the student who had previously earned more than one unit's credit in high school algebra. The needs of these students vary so much that we have now split the three and five-hour courses, enabling instructors to concentrate on the needs of specific groups. Also, we will again offer a three-hour course in trigonometry in addition to the combined five-hour trigonometry and functions course. This will better meet the needs of technical students who do not go on to calculus, as well as serving persons bound for engineering schools or specializing in chemistry, physics, or mathematics.

The college requires each student enrolling in the general education-transfer curriculum to provide scores of the American College Testing program as a condition for admission. Scores on the ACT give guidance as to the students' probable success in academic programs. Two types of research findings dependent upon this program have become available with the continued use of the tests and attendant information.

One of these is the class profile study, which reveals usable information about group characteristics, and describes very well the nature of our student body. One revelation was no surprise—the disproportionate number of students holding full-time or part-time jobs. This explains a very large number of scholastic difficulties.

Last summer for the first time we took part in new research, the results of which enable us to predict with a fair degree of accuracy a student's chance of earning a grade of "C" or better in a specific field, such as English, social or physical science, or mathematics. Research was based upon the 1965-66 freshman class scores and experience. Findings are translated into predictive percentages. With each year of added scores and experience, our predictions will be better, given a not-too-drastic change in student body characteristics.

SUMMARY

This investigation sought to determine the following:

1) Is the junior college president assigned responsibility and held accountable for educational leadership by his board of trustees?

2) Does the junior college president address himself to matters of educational leadership in his formal and/or informal reports to the board of trustees, faculty, students, or others?

Board policy manuals, presidential job descriptions, and presidential reports were examined to answer these questions.

From the survey of American junior colleges, the following may be concluded:

1) The majority of American junior colleges (55 per cent) do not produce formal statements describing the president's responsibilities.

2) The majority of American junior colleges (55 per cent) do not have written statements of official board policies.

3) The majority of American junior college (62 per cent) presidents do not produce a periodic report for any group—trustees, faculty, or students.

4) The typical American junior college president is neither assigned responsibility nor held accountable for educational leadership.

5) The typical American junior college president does not address himself to matters of educational leadership or responsibility in his formal pronouncements.

6) A few American junior colleges were identified where the president is assigned responsibility and is accountable for educational leadership. In these schools, the president *does* address himself to educational leadership in his reports to his board, faculty, and students. The two seem to go together.

CLASSIFYING, IDENTIFYING, AND TRAINING EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

CHAPTER IV

The Clearinghouse survey of educational leadership produced few surprises. Not many presidents seemed to indicate in their written work a concern for education, student learning, and effects of institutional effort. Reasons are not clear but presidents' comments suggest they are satisfied to delegate the responsibility or, what is worse, *assume* somehow that learning is taking place. The situation bodes little good for the future of junior college education. Implications for identifying and training leaders and, above all, for finding ways of holding them accountable for student learning are indicated.

CLASSIFYING EDUCATIONAL LEADERS

Leadership is not a single dimension. Whether the term is defined as inclusive of those who cause change, those who help move a group toward goals which satisfy group needs, or simply those who interpret group goals so that others can structure movement and change where necessary, different forms of leadership are required.

In the community college, types of leadership needed may be classified in many ways. One might be to set out forms of leadership along three dimensions: (1) pacesetting—projecting general directions and philosophical implications; (2) goal-setting—interpreting philosophical views and building institutional structure; and (3) accepting accountability for results obtained. All dimen-

sions may be combined in one person who occupies a head office or they may be manifest in different people within an institution. For example, the pacesetter could be the superintendent, the goal-setter the president, and the dean the person to be held accountable for results. Nevertheless, all qualities must be accepted and all functions manifest.

In the community college field, pacesetting—setting general directions and philosophy—is not often undertaken within the framework of a single institution. Indeed, it may not be desirable that one thousand community college leaders each attempt to define philosophy for the entire movement; however, the alternative—a set of institutions in which no one is spelling out broad aims—is even less indefensible.

The broad aims of the community college as an educational form were set down early in the century by such leaders as Jesse Bogue, Alex Lange, William Rainey Harper, David Starr Jordan, and Leonard Koos. They proposed a set of institutions that would provide opportunity for all young people to receive lower division university preparation and a form of general education. Their ideas were interpreted and brought to fruition in the current community college. Every contemporary junior college catalog includes statements of philosophy, purpose, and direction as iterated by those early leaders.

A similar form of broad-scale planning was manifest in the 1930's by those who added vocational-technical education to the list of junior college responsibilities. That type of leadership was again evident in the post-World War II era when the junior college accepted community services as a major endeavor. More recently, "remedial" education was added to the list. Although all those ideas are significant, continuing leadership of a similar type is needed because challenges to the system are still with us.

Where are the leaders who will design educational structures in which young people with IQ's of 90 will be led to a general education? To date, no one has done that satisfactorily; what passes for general education for the low IQ student is in actuality a form of custodial care. The need for leadership did not end when the President's Commission on Higher Education proposed education beyond the high school for all who could profit. We have not even the most rudimentary ideas on how to achieve that goal.

Who will take the community college into the city? The fact that multicampus districts include branch centers in various areas of large cities does not mean that the college centers are actually part of the community. They may be as isolated in spirit as they would be physically if they were standing miles outside of town. To fulfill its mission, the community college must have leaders who will translate community needs into curricular plans.

Despite feverish activity in the various areas of instruction commonly subsumed under the heading, "innovation," the teaching-learning process typically remains in the realm of, "Here it is! Come and get it if you can." Where is the educational leader who will translate learning theory into instructional practice? We know much more about how learning occurs than our activities seem to indicate. Campus directors who would be educational leaders must build demonstrably effective paths to learning.

Many forms of education are available beyond the walls of the school. Who will lead the way in merging junior college education with that available on commercial television, radio, off-campus learning laboratories and instructional programs in published form? When will the "sidewalk" or "storefront" campus be built—the campus that places a classroom in every other block throughout the city?

The fact that one thousand junior colleges have been built in answer to the direction proposed by early leaders does not mean that the job of translating philosophical aims into practice is finished. The college headman who would structure an institution within a pre-existing philosophical framework is a valuable and necessary member of the education fraternity, but he is not a leader in the broadest sense of the term.

Another type of educational leader rarely found is the person who structures the internal workings of an institution so that all facets of the enterprise are pointed toward student learning. When a junior college is opened, internal structure typically takes customary form. Divisions or departments are organized along lines of traditional academic disciplines. Line and staff structure—president, vice-president, deans, division chairmen, business managers, etc.—is adopted. Faculty ranking schemes and evaluation procedures are much the same throughout the country (12). With the exception of overly publicized "innovations," campus and classroom, from parking lot to laboratory, look very much like those to be found in any educational institution. One thousand colleges committed to instructional tasks barely conceived a generation ago—yet all look amazingly similar!

It is not only possible, it is highly likely that forms developed by universities and liberal arts colleges a century ago are not particularly suited for the different type of educational tasks that the community college attempts to do. To give one example, divisional and departmental structures organized along disciplinary or subject-area lines were arranged originally so that instructors with common interests would be housed together. The intent was for them to communicate with each other and enhance their scholarly contributions. The community college, ostensibly in the learning business, might well be arranged with divisions or de-

partments organized around pedagogical tasks. Suppose, instead of a history department or an English department, there were a department of test construction, one of instructional media, and one of objectives writing? Each department would be responsible for the activity assigned to it, and "subject matter"—itself an archaic concept—would no longer be recognized as being paramount. A form of leadership that would recognize the possibilities in such different modes of organization is needed. Certainly, alternative organizational structures should be attempted.

A third type of junior college leader can be sketched—the person who would be accountable for learning achieved at the institution. That type of leader would be one who would design and carry through intramural and community studies in which effects of the institution were plotted. It is just possible that communities will not continue to support junior colleges indefinitely without some indication as to the results they are obtaining. The institutional leader could gather evidence of learning and plot it against institutional effort. He would be an experimentalist by posture—not a gadfly to others, but one who would hypothesize effects and hold himself accountable for results. Whether or not he would occupy the top post in a community college is incidental to the argument. The fact is that leaders who hold themselves accountable for the effects of their institution and who produce evidence to demonstrate their effect are rarely found.

No matter how broadly or how narrowly the term is defined, leaders are not in oversupply in the junior college field. There are currently a group of innovators who are leaders in the sense that they change forms of instruction and patterns of organization, but it is difficult to ascribe a value to innovation for its own sake (35). Reports of the work of those innovators are found repeatedly in the published literature; however, only rarely are statements regarding the *effects* of innovation included. Most innovators typically introduce different forms of hardware or curricular programs designed to keep greater numbers of students attending the institution. To the extent they consider student learning at all, it is *assumed* to be enhanced by the innovations. The leader who innovates is not necessarily the leader who educates. New types of leaders are needed but what groups will supply them?

WHO SHALL CHANGE EDUCATION

Faculties: Those who represent and speak for various faculty organizations suggest that it is the faculties who will furnish the leadership for improved educational practices in American higher education. However, a major departure from current faculty outlook will be necessary if the prediction is to be sustained.

Faculties are fundamentally resistant to any change. From the

time of the medieval universities, professors have tended to go on doing things in the same old (presumably time-tested) ways (16). As a former university president observed,

> . . . faculties accept little responsibility for thinking of education as a whole; they pass on specific educational matters without taking the trouble to inform themselves about education, or they refrain (15).

In their assessment of American higher education, Brown and Mayhew report on the nature of college faculties:

> American college faculty members are typically conservative with respect to the essential educational content and mission of their institutions. It is difficult to think of an important curricular innovation that was originated and put into effect by faculty members operating in their corporate capacities (9:56).

With respect to junior college faculties in particular, Lombardi observed:

> . . . a president must understand the inherent educational conservatism of faculty. One of the many paradoxes in education is that faculty tend to be educational conservatives and social and political liberals while administrators lean toward educational liberalism and social and political conservatism. The old quip: "it is easier to move a cemetery than change the curriculum" has a great deal of truth (45).

Despite their clamor for more voice in the operation of the college, it is unlikely that faculties will furnish the impetus for educational changes in the junior college. Perpetuation, not innovation, appears to be the major thrust of faculties as a group. Certain educational positions still supported by many faculties have long been outmoded. For example, certain traditional subjects are advocated because they "train the mind," even though psychology has long qualified the validity of such contentions. The almost religious convictions of most faculty members concerning the superiority of small classes, the faculty-student ratio as a measure of regular class attendance, and other cherished beliefs serve as examples of the extensive folklore of academia, not validated and often contradicted by the findings, of research, yet vigorously supported by faculties.

Academic procedures have changed little in the past century. For the most part, classes still meet three times a week, with lectures scheduled for the morning hours and laboratory periods in the afternoon. The academic year still parallels a calendar justified only by an agrarian society of days gone by. There may be better ways, but faculties hold fast to their accustomed beliefs, routines, and practices.

Change does not seem imminent even though professional associations are growing rapidly in junior college faculties. Eventually, associations may take a lead in helping faculty members toward professionalism in education but, to date, their efforts have focused

on altering wages, hours, and conditions of employment. Much time must pass before the junior college faculty takes leadership in the field of educational change and improvement.

Board of Trustees: It is conceivable that the governing board, the group that holds ultimate responsibility for the educational program and performance of the college, could provide impetus for changed educational practices in the junior college. Griffiths has observed that the major impetus for change in organizations comes from the outside and that the degree and duration of change is directly proportional to the intensity of the stimulus from the supra-system (25:524; 536). At least in part, the board represents the supra-system to the junior college. As such, it could easily affect significant educational changes in current practices by asking the college president the "right" educational questions. (Examples of some of the right questions are presented in Chapter V, "Memo to a Junior College Trustee.")

However, there are limits to the board of trustees' influence in bringing about educational change. Newburn has explained the problem as one of "pros and amateurs"(50:12-14). The "amateurs," of course, are the board members whose knowledge and expertise typically are outside the area of education. At best they can speak to fiscal matters. The "pros" are the administrators and faculties who, presumably, know the best ways to organize and operate an educational institution. Boards have not been asking the "right" questions of junior college presidents and, without questions, they have not been getting answers. Should they decide to do so, they could indeed become the primary stimuli for significant educational change in American junior colleges.

Presidents: The president must ultimately accept responsibility (and be accountable) for bringing about educational changes in his institution. The setting is right for him to be the leader. Research has shown that change in organizations frequently comes from the top down (25:524-536). Jencks has observed that most college administrators are extremely sympathetic to curricular innovation (33). However, it will not happen of itself.

It is the junior college president who must address himself to the *educational* concerns of his institution. It is the president's responsibility to ask the right questions about the educational program of his institution. How he chooses to do this can vary tremendously from institution to institution. *Whether* or not he chooses to do it is another matter. Because of the tendency of people who bear the title, "administrator" to be oriented to the status quo, the best that one usually hears about their work is, "Everything is the same—he is a success." The criterion variable is "no change"—the community continues to support the institution, students continue to enroll and there is no open rebellion on

the part of faculty. That is a picture of sound administration but it has nothing to do with leadership.

The top person in the junior college, in common with the headman in other institutions, is severely restricted by conditions of the position itself. He can become fully occupied in adjusting himself to shifting alignments among groups which exert influence on him and on the institution. Those groups may be the board, his subordinates in administration, the faculty, students, and so on. *Management* ideals replace *leadership* ideals very quickly upon his attaining a top position in the institution. In fact, a tendency to manage rather than to lead may have become dominant in his thinking long before he became a president. To lead is to struggle with complexity and ambiguity. It is much easier to allow leadership tendencies to become subordinate to "the safer confines of a partial, already accepted, and specific office function" (48:189).

In all educational institutions, negative power holds sway. The administrator who fails to lead the institution may nevertheless tend to veto what others start. No enterprise can succeed unless the president contributes his blessing. He lacks power to create but has power to destroy. He may lack a tendency to lead but he always retains the authority to keep others from leading. The president can make a career of managing and never get around to leading. The tendency of the administrator is to not act. In that manner no one is offended. Administrative indecision, inaction and delegation of all responsibility to initiate becomes the pattern. Yet all the while the veto power is retained; thus, protecting the delegated authority of the headman.

The administrator frequently builds councils within his own office, managing and, in fact, leading his office staff. He views himself a leader, setting goals and taking responsibility for goal attainment. Actually, all occurs within the essentially narrow context of his council of administators. Whether or not any of those leadership functions have effect on student learning—the ostensible purpose of the institution—is highly suspect.

A president can make a career of managing (administering) and never get around to leading. Sad to relate, he may not even realize he is doing one and not the other.

FOSTERING LEADERSHIP

Faculties concern themselves with matters pertaining to their academic disciplines. Governing boards discuss money and ways of holding down community disaffection. Administrators tend to maintain the status quo and keep things running as smoothly as possible. How can a tendency to *lead* be fostered?

In the past few years, several nationwide and local endeavors have attempted to wrestle with the problem of developing leadership in the

junior college. The American Association of Junior Colleges, the major professional association in the field, has sponsored a variety of programs of an educational or information-dispensing nature. One of its recent efforts, the Program With Developing Institutions, seems to hold promise because it is directed at problems of leadership.

Recent meetings with eighty-five developing junior colleges have focused attention on the need for strong institutional research programs. This effort may provide the impetus for institutional improvement in these colleges.

Another endeavor of AAJC relates to newly established junior colleges. Like the program for developing institutions, this project points to the desirability of building strong institutional research endeavors into a college from the very beginning. The recent creation of a Committee for Research and Service is another indication of the Association's concern for improved educational practices in American junior colleges.

Other organizations that are in a position to support or foster leadership in American junior colleges include the Regional Education Laboratory for the Carolinas and Virginia; various USOE-supported Research and Development Centers; newly established centers, such as the Institute for Higher Education at the University of Florida (which has a strong junior college emphasis); and private organizations such as Educational Testing Service, College Entrance Examination Board, and American College Testing, all of which are evidencing increasing attention to evaluation of junior college instructional and curriculum endeavors.

Some graduate degree-granting institutions have addressed themselves to the leadership issue. Beginning in 1960, the W.J. Kellogg Foundation funded leadership programs at several universities for the express purpose of preparing people to hold administrative positions in junior colleges. In some cases, universities expanded existing programs; in others they built strong new efforts. The leadership programs (some still operating with Foundation support) provided fellowships and internships, and sponsored conferences, publications, and other activities designed to enhance junior college leadership training. They made an impact at a time when junior colleges were sorely short of experienced administators.

Other university-based efforts have included in-service training for junior college administrators and a variety of information-dispensing services. University departments frequently conduct workshops, retreats, and symposiums for junior college personnel. The ERIC Clearinghouse for Junior College Information includes as a major component the focusing of administrators' attention on significant issues in their profession. Still, more can be done.

Most specialized programs for preparing junior college leaders in either preservice or in-service situations have developed in the past ten years. Each of them performs necessary work but they are not nearly enough. Most people who attain positions of responsibility in the junior colleges of America still come up through the ranks and receive training only in the nature of apprenticeship to older administrators, plus whatever they can glean from occasional conferences or workshops. Expanded formal training endeavors are certainly warranted.

In 1968, the Educational Professions Development Act was funded by the federal government through the U.S. Office of Education. One of its components includes the preparation of instructors and administrators for junior colleges—particularly, the in-service training and upgrading of staff personnel. It is too early to determine effects of E.P.D.A. but if the program goes as planned, it should have decided impact.

Developing leadership potential among those who work in state offices has been proposed as a separate endeavor (61). As junior colleges move away from local control and more toward state systems, central office workers come more in position to exert influence. Specialized programs for that group are certainly warranted.

One form of influence on leadership tendencies within the junior college has been neglected for the most part—that which can be exerted by boards of trustees directly upon professional educators without violating their privileges of office or rights of academic freedom. Boards are in position to demand that administrators in the junior colleges under their jurisdiction be accountable for the quality of education in their institutions. Education is itself the process of learning. Learning is changed capability for or tendency toward, acting in particular ways. Boards can require that chief executive officers report regularly on student learning. It is with the hope that boards begin to seek leaders who will take responsibility for student learning that the memo to a trustee is written.

MEMO TO A TRUSTEE

CHAPTER V

That changes are needed in current junior college educational endeavors is the understatement of the year. As Canfield so astutely observed:

> Junior colleges are much like hospitals—both being characterized by the diagnosis, treatment, and evaluation of human needs, one for health and the other for education. Junior colleges differ from hospitals in that every student gets essentially the same treatment method (lecture/textbook) and treatment failures are explained largely on the basis of student (patient) inadequacies. This is a little like saying that our treatments are fine but we keep getting the wrong patients (students). If medical men had failed to persistently study and evaluate their treatments for disease, "bleeding" could have persisted as a standard treatment to the present (10).

Sanford sums up the problem even more succinctly:

> Colleges are failing rather badly. They fail to achieve their own stated purposes; and they fail by other reasonable standards of accomplishment (58).

When one considers recent changes (innovations) in education with recent developments in space technology, medicine, or agriculture, it becomes obvious that educational changes are much more akin to the fads of the fashion world than they are to progress in medicine or agriculture.

WHAT CAN TRUSTEES DO?

While it is the junior college president's duty to ask the right questions about his institution's educational program, it is the gov-

erning board's responsibility to ask *him* appropriate educational questions regularly and routinely. As suggested in the previous chapter, simply by asking the right questions, boards of trustees can become the primary stimuli for needed educational changes in American junior colleges. In this context, boards can create an environmental press where presidents *must* become educational leaders simply to retain their positions. The possibility of developing educational leadership in American junior colleges rests heavily with boards of trustees.

The following suggestions are offered as ten positive steps that a board can take to develop educational leaders:

1. *Job Description.* In describing the responsibilities of the president (writing a job description), include a separate category for matters relating directly to educational leadership. The president should be assigned definite responsibilities in the crucial areas of curriculum and instruction. Consider the following example:

> The president is responsible for developing a curriculum that will accommodate the slower learning rates of the college's low-ability students. The curriculum will be evaluated in terms of subsequent student successes in other college endeavors, student retention rate, and evidence that students are learning in said curriculum.

This responsibility means that the president will necessarily be involved in the design or implementation of curricular programs too important to delegate. He may pass detailed responsibility along to the appropriate officers on his staff—the dean of instruction, the council of department chairmen, or a committee of the academic senate—and hold *them* accountable but he must take an active part. If the president is directly responsible to the board, he will support the program in substantive ways if only because he must answer for it.

2. *The Cost of Learning.* The president should relate all budget requests and campus expansion plans (new buildings) to how they affect, or possibly enhance, student learning. For example, if the president who is assigned responsibility for developing a curriculum for low-ability students requests a learning laboratory, he should be prepared to present evidence that: 1) students learn more in this environment than in other situations; 2) student retention is increased; or 3) individual learning rates are better accommodated.

Whether or not another college has a similar learning laboratory should never be used to justify an expenditure, unless evaluation has been made on educational considerations. The cost of any proposed facility should be viewed in educational terms. Doing it because others are cannot be accepted as a reason.

3. *The Inexperienced President.* When seeking a junior college president, take a chance on new or inexperienced people. It is quite

possible that a person who has never studied junior college administration or served in an administrative position may be more open or receptive to change than one who already has fixed ideas about how the college should be managed.

The important consideration here is for the board to set the conditions for presidential leadership and then find a man who will accept total responsibility for such leadership. The environmental press will force the president to be an educational leader. If he is "problem-oriented" (the right questions), he will be an educational leader—with or without previous administrative training and/or experience. This is not to demean the value of seeking out persons who are committed to the junior college concept and who have experience or training in the area. The crucial item here is presidential accountability for educational leadership—with or without such a background.

4. *Rotating Office Holders.* Griffith has commented on the relationship of educational change to the tenure of a college's chief administrator.

> Change comes from the top down, and the number of innovations in an organization is inversely proportional to the period of tenure of its chief administrator (25: 524-536).

For centuries, European colleges and universities have used a "rotating chair" for chief administrators—changing headmen regularly. This approach provides for a continual input of new ideas into the educational program—especially, if the president is required to furnish educational leadership. For years, various institutions have employed leaders to perform differentiating functions within the context of the organization. For example, some church organizations seek pastors who can provide leadership during a crucial building program. Another type of leadership is needed upon completion of the building phase and another pastor is brought in. Industries also hire chief executives to begin different programs or projects. Once through the embryonic stage, a different kind of leader is needed. It may well be that a new junior college needs a different type of educational leader than a junior college with fifty years of history and tradition. Junior college boards may well wish to consider the possibility of employing a president for a given period of time to develop a new program or approach.

5. *Delegated Authority for Fiscal Management.* Educational responsibility is more important than business management duties, however, the topic, "curriculum and instruction," is found infrequently in president's reports; "business management," on the other hand is usually covered (40:25).

Boards must be ready to support an educational leader who will delegate the bulk of fiscal management to others on his staff. Too

long the president has been the chief financial officer for the college occupying his time fully with buildings and budgets. Now is the time for the president to become the college's chief *educational* officer. Again, this characteristic is directly related to the kinds of responsibilities assigned to him by his board of trustees. Typically, boards have placed great emphasis on sound money management, with little attention to the real "purposes" of the institution.

6. *Presidential Freedom to Experiment.* Boards must be ready to support presidents as educational leaders by tolerating failures in educational experimentation. In Chapter IV a report was quoted in which the president reported on certain unfavorable results with an experimental program. While observing that results were good with certain aspects of the program, this president pointed out the limitations and weaknesses of the experiment. He noted that the experimental program required so much of the student's time that the student was forced to short-change his other courses. The experiment also created too much paperwork for instructors to be able to evaluate on a regular basis. These and other shortcomings led the president to recommend the creation of another program with a different structure and focus. All experimentation does not lead to unqualified success or improvement in programs.

The president must not be made to feel that his job is in jeopardy if failures are reported. This is one of the most pressing problems facing the junior college president today. It has been suggested that junior colleges have deliberately not attempted to evaluate their programs for low-ability students for fear the results of their current endeavors would cost them public support for adequate financing (54:41). The result of this fear has been the "public relations" approach used by many junior college presidents. They talk grandly about the *numbers* of persons who enroll at their colleges and of serving community needs, but no results are reported.

Boards must encourage—indeed, demand—honesty and truthfulness in the president's report on the educational program. Most important, however, is the willingness of the board to tolerate and expect failures en route to improved educational practices.

7. *Articulation Initiative.* Boards should encourage the president to take initiative in articulation with senior institutions.

Many junior colleges have long rationalized their inability to modify existing curricular programs because "the senior colleges and universities will not accept the credits for transfer." This argument is advanced by many who simply do not wish to consider curricular changes. In actuality, where junior colleges have taken the initiative, they have experienced little difficulty in getting their credits transferred to senior institutions (34).

Junior colleges that have experimented with such "radical" policies as not assigning "D's" and "F's" have been able to effect stu-

dent transfers. The key to such experimental endeavors is to maintain effective channels of communication with the institutions at which junior college students eventually matriculate.

8. *Continuing Education for Presidents.* Boards must support the president in his attempts to upgrade his knowledge of education. In many cases, boards and state departments of education have scorned presidential travel to regional and national conferences. However, such meetings are among the few opportunities a president has to acquire new knowledge about his job. The president should be encouraged to attend workshops and in-service training sessions. Research on educational innovation shows that frequent contacts with the "outside world" (away from campus) are positively related to the spirit of innovation and experimentation found on the college campus (22).

Simarily, other administrators and faculty members should be encouraged and supported to attend conferences and workshops. Faculty exchanges between institutions may be an excellent way to provide for a cross-fertilization of ideas. Presidents should not have to apologize for requests for travel or in-service workshops and retreats, methods that are among the best at setting a stage for change.

9. *Institutional Research.* Boards should expect to support viable programs of institutional research on teaching and learning. Few junior colleges currently support research offices. Of those that uphold such efforts, the areas of instruction and curriculum are the topics on which the least research in done (55). If boards are going to ask presidents to supply answers to the right questions, they must provide them with the means to get answers.

It neither requires a lot of money nor a highly qualified research person to organize and operate an effective institutional research office—excuses too often made by presidents who simply see no value in such offices. It is assured, however, that if the board of trustees poses the right educational questions, not only will the president see the value in institutional research, but will recognize that his job, in fact, depends upon it.

10. *Ask the Right Questions.* Throughout this list, a case has been made for boards asking the right questions of their presidents. The assumption is that the best way to get someone to act in a particular way is to tell him that is what he is expected to do. If boards continually ask questions relating to buildings, budgets, and bonds, only the most staunchly committed leaders will address themselves to matters of student learning.

Following is a list of questions of a type that might be addressed *periodically* to the president. The general question is, "Is Anyone Learning Anything at the College?" Within that category, others might be structured:

Attendance and Retention

What per cent of the community's young people attend the college?

What experiences do they seek?

What per cent leave before completing one term? Before completing the program for which they enrolled?

What reasons did they offer for leaving?

What measures are being taken to reduce the student attrition rate?

How many students return at later dates after having once dropped out?

On what bases are students placed in different programs?

Student Follow-up

Where do students go when they leave the school? Types of jobs gained? Further education?

How many complete their educational programs elsewhere?

How do employers perceive the value of the college's programs?

How do instructors at transfer institutions perceive the programs?

How does a student who has been away from the college for a period of one, three, or five years view his college experiences?

Student Learning

How do patterns of student scores change on exams taken upon entrance and at subsequent intervals?

What different patterns of knowledge are apparent between groups of students who complete programs and those who drop out?

Do students' attitudes toward learning change as a result of their attendance?

What specific abilities or skills are gained in college programs?

Curriculum

Do all programs relate to the stated aims of the college?

Have specific objectives been developed for all courses so that sequences are discernable?

What curricular alternatives are available to students who learn at differential rates of speed?

Does student achievement vary significantly among various programs?

What provisions are made for curricular experimentation?

Instruction

To what degree are teachers held accountable for student learning?

What types of instructional specialization are being fostered?

Would alternative forms of departmental organization enhance learning?

What provisions are made for in-service education of teachers?

Those are just a few of the many questions that can be asked. If the president is required to produce answers on a regular basis, he will arrange procedures so that requisite data is available.

LEADERSHIP AND THE BOARD

None of the procedures recommended in this memo requires special legislation or excessive financial commitment. The matter of educational leadership is one of orientation to the ultimate purposes of educational institutions. There is no need to continue muddling along without clear bases on which decisions pertaining to community education can be made. The process of asking questions can itself be a valuable exercise. In addition—as though further incentive were needed—the community itself may soon ask, "What are we getting for our money?" The board may feel more inclined to answer if it can point to hard data rather than hunch, feel, and opinion.

The matter rests with the board. When a candidate for a presidency is interviewed, that for which he is to be called to account can quickly be made known to him. If he is a flexible, dynamic sort, he will rise to the challenge; if not, it is better for all that it be known in advance.

An incumbent president can be encouraged to provide answers to the right questions by differential rewards. In any event, the board that would build a viable educational structure must address itself to the issue directly and not leave it to tradition, faith and good intentions.

As for the president, he who would be called *educational* leader must hold himself accountable for learning achieved by the students in his charge. *Other* responsibilities—not those pertaining to education—should be delegated. If no one asks the president, he must ask himself, "Is anyone learning anything here?" That is the foundation of educational leadership; the rest is commentary.

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